DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 239 317 CS 504 490

AUTHOR Book, Cassandra L.
TITLE Providing Feedback on Student Speeches: The Research on Effective Oral and Written Feedback Strategies.
PUB DATE 12 Nov 83
NOTE 28p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association (69th, Washington, DC, November 10-13, 1983).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Classroom Environment; *Feedback; Higher Education; Speech Communication; *Speeches; *Speech Evaluation; *Speech Instruction; Speech Skills; *Student Attitudes; *Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS Audience Response

ABSTRACT

The purpose of teacher feedback in the speech classroom is to inform the speaker of the audience's reaction to the speech, to make suggestions for improvement on future speeches, and to motivate the speaker to speak again or to enjoy speaking. To provide appropriate criticism, teachers need to understand the nature and the relative merits of various types of feedback: simultaneous, delayed, immediate, written, and oral. While studies indicate that simultaneous negative feedback by the audience has a deteriorating effect on speaker performance, work with verbal prompting through a transistorized ear plug has improved the speaking performance of graduate teaching assistants. Research suggests that audio and video recordings accompanied by positive feedback improve students' oral interpretation skills. Classroom experience suggests that students remember criticism when it is immediate and accompanied by written comments and that the most effective written commentary is atomistic and impersonal, and may be either positive or negative. Studies suggest that oral criticism should stress positive features to promote favorable attitudes toward speaking. Though this is perhaps the most helpful form of feedback, it may have a negative influence on the performance of succeeding speakers. (MM)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

ED239317

Providing Feedback on Student Speeches: The Research on Effective Oral and Written Feedback Strategies

Cassandra L. Book
Assistant Dean for Teacher Education
College of Education
Michigan State University

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Cassandra L. Book

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Paper presented at the
Speech Communication Association Convention
November 12, 1983
Washington, D.C.

CS 504 490

"Providing Feedback on Student Speeches: The Research on Effective Oral and Written Feedback Strategies"

From the beginning of recorded history of speech education, teachers of speech have provided feedback to their students in an effort to alter or reinforce students' demonstrated speech skills. Feedback given to speakers in a speech class is typically referred to as speech criticism. Such criticism primarily functions to reinforce existing behavior or to inform the speaker about his or her speech behavior so that modifications can be made in future speaking attempts. The responsible speech teacher weighs carefully the question posed by Holtzman (1960), "What can I say (or write or do) that will result in this student's improving his communicative ability?" (p. 1). As Kenneth Hance (1967) indicated, "The person desiring to improve himself as a critic will seek to know (1) the nature of each of the methods or approaches, and (2) the relative merits of each" (p. 150). Much of the writing about how to provide effective feedback has come from experienced speech teachers indicating what they think is responsible, effective feedback or criticism (Hance, 1967; Holtzman, 1960; Smith, 1961; Dedmon, 1967; Reid, 1971). Such a common sense list of proper ways to give criticism include: focus criticism on a significant idea; require students to learn only so much for each speaking experience; make the criticism meaningful by giving a positive comment first, followed by possibilities for improvement, ending with a note of praise; keep minor details in proportion and point out what has been omitted rather than details that will eventually self-correct; encourage self-criticism by the speaker; be cautious in the use of delayed reinforcement because it has reduced value; and make two or three comments on strengths and two or three comments on weaknesses using

directed leading questions. Evidence supporting the effectiveness of these guidelines is lacking in the literature as is the evidence of the different effects of giving criticism after each speech, giving a critique after several talks, obtaining feedback from one or more students, having the speaker conduct his or her own critique session, and having an audience question-period following each speech. This paper will summarize both the "common sense folklore" about giving feedback, as well as the researchers' conclusions about effective feedback and will identify implications for practice and research from each.

Definition of Feedback

As Clement and Frandsen (1976) have pointed out, "Despite feedback's apparent simplicity as a concept, the literature on the subject suggests various interpretations of the term" (p. 11). Thus it is necessary to discern which definition is applicable for the speech teacher, and, in so doing, differentiate among the concepts of feedback, criticism and teacher praise.

The systematic view of communication as an interactive or transactive process requires a definition of feedback that is also dynamic and an inherent part of the communication exchange. Such a view conceives of feedback "not as an independent activity, but rather as an interwoven set of relationships . . . involving inter-related variables which influence the entire system" (Clement and Frandsen, 1976, p. 16). Research has focused on the ability of a speaker to interpret feedback instanteously and then adapt the speech to it, and the effects of such conscious adaptation on the delivery of the speech (Rhodes and Frandsen, 1975; Blubaugh, 1969; Vlandis, 1964; Amato and Ostermeier, 1967).

Recognizing this particular role of feedback in the speech event leads to a clearer understanding of communication as an interactive process. However, one must also recognize the implication for the speaker imbedded in that definition of feedback; it implies that all verbal and nonverbal feedback interpreted by the speaker was intended to be sent to the speaker by the audience. That is, if an audience member shakes his head during the speech and the speaker infers that the audience member disagrees with him, the speaker may attempt to alter his message. If the receiver meant to communicate disagreement to the speaker, the gesture met its intended purpose. If, on the other hand, the receiver shook his head to get rid of an annoying mosquito or because he was thinking about something else, the speaker would have interpreted the nonverbal gesture improperly and may have disrupted his speech. Studies of the effects of simultaneous adaptation to audience feedback on the speaker's messages typically have ensured that the feedback was related to the speech and deliberately given. However, such contrived feedback, as holding up red, green, and white cards or requiring receivers to actively demonstrate positive or negative feedback, has limited usefulness in teaching students what to do to improve during future speeches.

Thus, the definition of feedback which will be used in this paper is consistent with the term metacommunication or Clement and Frandsen's (1976) definition of "action-reaction". In essence, feedback is the use of deliberate comments about a speech given after the speech. Such a stimulus-response approach to feedback provides a conceptual distinction between feedback as part of the communication transaction and feedback as part of the teaching-learning process. While learning can occur

without the benefit of a teacher or specific "teaching" event, students improve in their speaking skills more when some feedback is given. A speaker's interpretation of audience reaction is basically an intrinsic activity. Use of the term feedback in this paper will be feedback that is extrinsic.

In this paper, the words "feedback" and "criticism" will mean the same thing. Although Brophy (1981) said "teacher criticism connotes expression of disapproval, disgust or rejection" (p. 6), Reid (1971) noted that "the word criticism carries with it the idea or rebuke, correction or fault finding. [He went on to say] criticism, however, is favorable as well as adverse; it comes from a Greek word meaning to discuss, judge, or discern" (p. 267). Thus, for this paper, feedback or speech criticism will carry the meaning that Brophy (1981) gave to praise and criticism, that of "teacher reactions that go beyond simple feedback about appropriateness or correctness of behavior" (p. 6).

It is generally considered that the purpose of feedback on speeches is to (1) inform the speaker about the audiences' reaction to the speech, (2) make suggestions for improvement on future speeches, and (3) motivate the speaker to speak again or to enjoy speaking. As Latta (1978) cited, Locke, Cartledge, and Koepple (1968):

> feedback about performance may serve different functions. Success feedback may function as: (1) a reinforcer (Warm, Kanfer, Kuwada & Clark, 1975) and operate according to the Empirical Law of Effect, (2) a cue for eliminating errors, or (3) an incentive (Atkinson & Raynor, 1974) which affects the tendency to perform achievement related tasks. (p. 17)

Regardless of the intended purpose of the feedback, it is important to remember that "feedback is more than the audience's responses. Clearly, the reaction by the sender determines whether an audience's responses are reinforcing, informative, or neither" (Clement & Frandsen, 1976, p. 17). Nonetheless, in a structured speech class in which feedback is given, students should be motivated to receive the feedback and use it for their benefit.

Types of Feedback

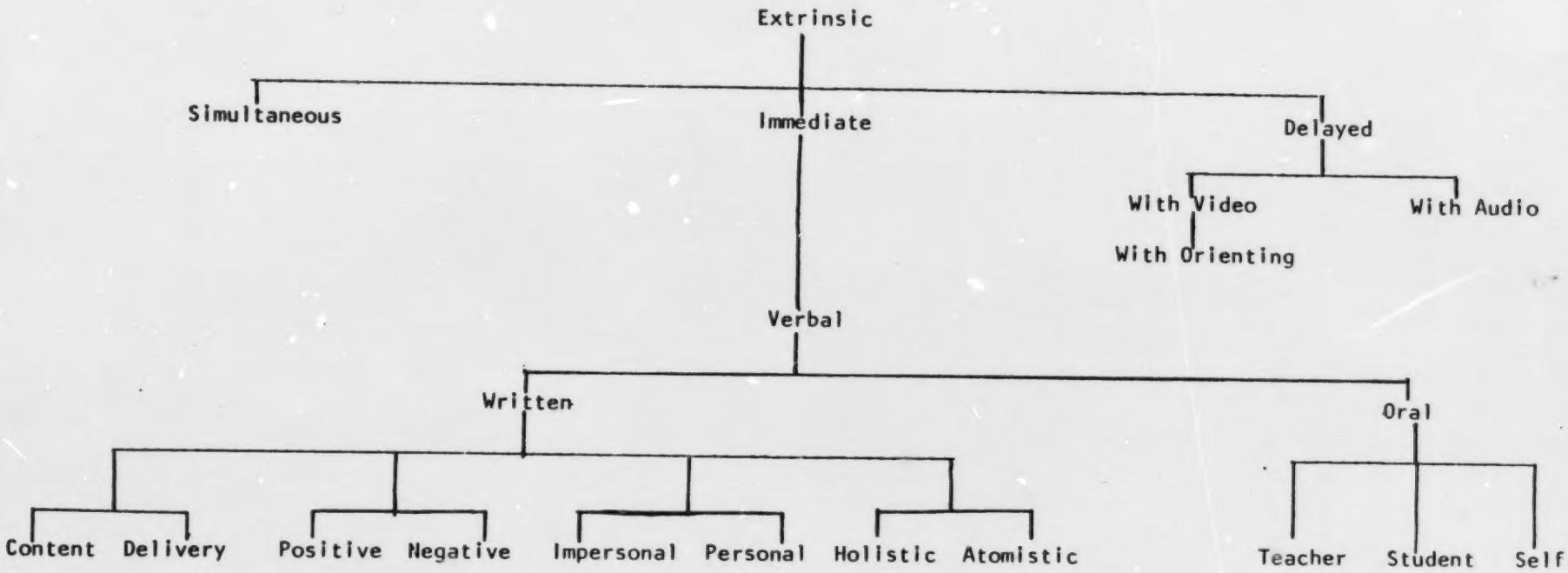
By the definition, feedback as used here is extrinsic. Building from Robert Vogel's (1975) "Different Levels of Feedback Analysis," (see Figure 1), I will review the literature regarding simultaneous, immediate and delayed feedback, including research which investigated the use of videotape playback. Then, of the verbal category, I will review research on written and oral feedback. The summary of research on written feedback includes comments regarding content or delivery, which were positive or negative, impersonal or personal, and holistic or atomistic. Oral feedback given by teachers, peers (students), and the speaker (him or herself) will be discussed. Finally, implications for instructional practice, including the coupling of feedback with grading, as well as the implications for further research will be provided.

Simultaneous Feedback

Simultaneous feedback has been systematically studied in two major formats. One used nonverbal messages and the other used verbal messages to provide instantaneous feedback during the delivery. While one set of messages focused on agreement by the audience with the content of the speech, the other attempted to modify either the content or delivery of the message

Figure 1

Types of Feedback (Adopted from Robert Vogel)



in accord with the speaker's predetermined desires. Amato and Ostermeier (1967) had audience members hold up white, red or green cards indicating their favorable, unfavorable and neutral responses to the speaker's message in line with response-role given to each audience member. The researchers found support for their hypothesis that "unfavorable feedback prompts a deterioration in speaker delivery -- specifically: eye contact, nervousness, bodily movement, and fluency for the beginning public speaker" (p. 58). Such a manipulated method of providing feedback is of questionable value in the speech communication course, especially since this feedback is in response to whether or not audience members agree with the speaker's point. Such feedback may have limited instructional value in improving a speaker's performance on subsequent speeches.

A second type of simultaneous feedback was reported by Nyquist and Wulff (1982). While these researchers sought to improve teaching competencies of graduate teaching assistants, the method employed has application for public speaking instruction. Nyquist and Wulff (1982) report that:

> Simultaneous feedback is a process of behavior modification induced by verbal prompting via a small, transistorized ear plug. The procedure requires special equipment whereby a prompter located away from the interaction situation can view the episode via videotape or one-way glass and simultaneously direct an instructor to demonstrate specific behaviors. (p. 11)

The key assumption underlying the use of simultaneous feedback "that verbal messages can enable individuals to adapt or modify their behavior instantaneously" (p.11), was confirmed in the modification of teaching behaviors in the desired direction. This study has implications for use in the teaching of public speaking but needs to be examined more thoroughly. Certainly the model established by Nyquist and Wulff would suggest the method may be most successful when feedback is provided in areas he or she wished to improve. Thus, such messages would be in keeping with the speaker's self-concept as a speaker and in areas he or she was motivated to improve. As Dedmon (1967) stated, a student "must alter his own behavior; no one can alter his behavior for him. Therefore, the student speaker himself must be deeply involved in modifying his speech behavior" (p.280). Thus Dedmon concluded the instructor should ask questions of the speaker about the speech. Such a rhetorical approach was used by Nyquist and Wulff prior to giving simultaneous feedback on the areas discussed. In addition, questions could be posed to the speaker through the "bug-in-the-ear" technique.

Delayed Feedback

Delayed feedback using audio or video tape has been studied by a number of researchers. Kenner (1967) appealed to teachers to use the tape recorder as a means of allowing a "student to progress on his own . . . by listen[ing] to himself [and] test[ing] his own diction, voice quality, and phrasing as he projects the thought, feeling, and imagination involved in the selection" (p. 217).

A study of audiotape self analysis by Nystrom and Leaf (1939) "Found that merely listening to recordings affected no more improvement than not using them at all, and suggested that students require assistance in identifying speech assets and faults" (Hirshfield, 1968, p. 116). A similar finding in teacher education was reported by Fuller, Veldman and Richeck (1966) who found that:

> listening to tape recordings alone did not reduce the discrepancies between student teachers' self ratings and ratings by observers of their teaching performance. There was a significant reduction in these discrepancies when this playback was accompanied by instructor and peer commentary. (Peck & Tucker, 1973, p. 946).

Hirschfield (1968) found that classmates consistently rated their peers highest, the speaker rated himself next highest, and the judges' rated the speech lowest. He "strongly recommends classmates evaluation of videotaped speaches" rather than allowing only speakers to criticize their own speech, for he found that feedback from peers can mitigate overly negative self-criticism and can reinforce students' understanding of the criteria for a good speech (p. 118).

A study reported by Bert Bradley (1970 compared students in sections of a public speaking course whose speeches were videotaped constantly or once during the term with students in a section in which no speeches were videotaped. There was no difference among the students on

comprehension and retention of rhetorical theory nor on their grades on final speeches. However, "constant use [of the videotape] caused students in this study to have a significantly more favorable attitude toward the Intellectual Atmosphere and the Content Evaluation of the course" (Bradley, 1970, p. 166). While improved attitude may not be sufficient cause for using a videotape in a speech class, it should not be overlooked. Students' attitudes towards themselves as speakers and their perception that they can improve their speaking ability may have long range effects beyond the effects of grades earned on final exams or final speeches.

A team of researchers reported on "The Effects of Teacher Comment and Television Video Tape Playback on the Frequency of Nonfluency in Beginning Speech Students" (Deihl, Breen, & Larsen, 1970). They concluded that "not offering the student any help results in more nonfluencies than under any other condition . . . and . . . that though the student improves when he sees his own mistakes televised, his improvement increases significantly when the instructor takes time to point out errors and to discuss them with the student" (Deihl et al., 1970, p. 188). In like manner, McCroskey and Lashbrook (1970) supported the importance of having instructor and student discussion accompany student viewing of a videotape of his or her speech. They found that a student viewing his or her speech without feedback can work directly counter to the goals of the course. Also Porter and King (1972) concluded that "when accompanied by an appropriate, positive critique by a qualified instructor, VTR feedback can improve oral interpretation performance" (p. 105). These researchers add support for the 1939 study which indicated that use of media to provide student feedback is not

sufficient, but rather the use of mediated feedback accompanied by criticism from another person aids in the student's speech improvement.

Mulac (1974) returned to the question of the effect of use of videotape and audiotape on acquired speech skill and concluded "subjects who viewed videotapes on their first and fifth class speeches were appreciably better in final performances than those who heard audiotape recordings of their first and fifth performances" (p. 213), but the students in the audiotaped group did not demonstrate greater speech skill than those in the control group who had no mediated feedback. The students who viewed videotapes "were significantly better than members of the audiotape group on four of the factors: Bodily Action, Personality, Language, and Voice. No significant differences were found between these groups on two factors: Content and Intelligibility" (p. 213). Students received oral criticism at the end of a day's speeches, but viewed the videotape alone, and submitted self-evaluations before receiving the instructor's feedback. Thus differences seem to be due to the use of the media itself as opposed to the use of mediated feedback accompanied by instructor or peer criticism. In both Mulac's study and Hirschfield's studies, students had positive attitudes about the use of videotapes in the class.

Immediate Feedback

Dedmon (1967) makes the argument for immediate criticism after a speech or at the end of a class period based on the principle of learning that "Pupils learn best when they have immediate and valid knowledge of success or failure" (p. 283). He also warns against criticizing the non-essentials within the immediate feedback and suggests that written comments

which can be studied in greater depth by the student and which may be more inclusive than oral comments can be helpful. He notes that written comments may be provided after each individual speech or at the end of the class period (such as on rating forms) or may be given at a later time. In addition, he indicates that "criticisms after all students have completed one assignment are helpful" (p. 283) so the teacher and students can see the work of the class in perspective. While these recommendations make practical sense, the effect of these different types of immediate feedback has not been systematically examined. The type of written comment and the effects of varying types have been examined.

Written Feedback

Sprague (1971) proposed a category system of written criticism of student speeches based on four dichotomies: content-delivery, atomistic-holistic, personal-impersonal, and positive-negative. She found that criticism given by teachers to students most frequently involved content (75%), atomistic (95%), and impersonal (99%) comments; positive and negative comments were almost equally divided.

Vogel (1973) used Sprague's category system to analyze the relationship between teachers' written criticism and student's improvement on speech performance. Students demonstrated no significant differences in their speaking improvement regardless of the type of predetermined feedback they were given: (1) atomistic, impersonal, negative; (2) atomistic, impersonal, postive; or (3) atomistic, personal, positive. There was significant speaking improvement for all three groups, however.

Young (1974) asked speech students to respond to a hypothetical situation in which they identified comments they believe would be most helpful if applied to a speech they delivered. After classifying the comments according to Sprague's system, Young found that students identified atomistic comments as significantly more helpful than holistic comments, impersonal comments as more helpful than personal, and positive (generally) more helpful than negative; no preferences were evident for comments about content or delivery. Overall, atomistic, impersonal, negative criticism in combination was rated significantly more helpful than other types; and holistic, negative personal criticism was rated significantly less helpful than other types.

A study by Book and Simmons (1980) in which actual feedback given by students to their peers was rated for helpfulness by the speakers revealed results similar to Young's. Atomistic, impersonal comments were consistently perceived as most helpful, but atomistic, impersonal, negative comments about delivery and content were more frequently perceived as helpful. In addition, students gave comments to their peers which were consistent with the focus of each assignment, adding to the belief that student's feedback to their peers is credible. This finding is supportive of one by Wiseman and Barker (1975). They found:

> that when students are provided specific communication criteria they are able to evaluate [peer speeches] similarly to instructors, but are not capable of making such evaluations when they are asked to make a single grade estimate. This interpretation suggests that evaluation forms, providing specific criteria, must be utilized in peer group instruction. (p. 137)

Thus, it appears that peers, as well as faculty, can provide effective written feedback to speakers.

It is not surprising that specific comments indicating a weakness of the speech are perceived as helpful, since students are generally motivated to improve performance. Levie and Dickie in the Second Handbook of Research on Teaching (1973) report "Knowledge of results does facilitate learning when it follows wrong responses. Such feedback permits the learner to correct his mistakes and will lessen the likelihood that we will recall wrong responses as being correct" (p. 876). Since speeches are typically not right or wrong, care should be used in generalizing that negative criticism of speeches leads to improved speaking. Research thus far has not identified a differential effect of feedback types on speaker performance.

In addition, it bears repeating that students improve in their speech performance more if they have assistance in identifying their strengths and weaknesses than if they are left to their own devices to critique their performance. As Peck and Tucker (1973) summarize research on the effect of performance feedback given to student teachers: "solitary self-confrontation with feedback information is ineffectual, or much less effectual than when a second person participates in the feedback process" (p. 946). They cited a study by Steinen (1967) in which "feedback from fellow student teachers working in pairs, and feedback from pupils were both found to be more successful than self-appraisal feedback by the student teacher themselves as they modified and retaught lessons" (Peck and Tucker, 1967, p. 946). The implication is that students benefit from comments from their peers, teachers or audience about the effectiveness of their performance.

Another consideration regarding the effect of written feedback on improved performance is the interaction of the type of feedback given with the student's internal or external control of reinforcement orientation. A study by Bernard Hammer (1972) has implications for further research in the area of speech criticism. In his study, students with an external orientation, who received specific comments which took into consideration the grade they expected to receive, performed significantly better than those with an internal orientation; students with an internal orientation performed better than those with an external orientation when no comments were given; students who had an external orientation and received comments which considered their expected grade performed better than externally oriented students who received no comments; and there was no significant difference between internally oriented students who received no comments and those who received specific comments which considered their grade expectation. Thus, Hammer's study "demonstrated the value of written teacher comments that incorporate students' grade expectations. Furthermore, it has shown that students who maintain an external control of reinforcement orientation are more apt to be influenced by these comments" (p. 457). Thus, a speech teacher may benefit a student's speech performace by incorporating the student's grade expectations and personal orientation toward reinforcement into the written comments provided. The generalizability of Hammer's results to grade levels other than college needs to be tested. Similarly, the types of written feedback which are perceived as helpful to college students may not be perceived as helpful to students in the secondary school (Stewart and White, 1976).

Oral Criticism

Bostrom (1963) reported that the positive or negative nature of oral criticism given to a speaker after his or her speech affected the attitudes the speaker had toward speech: "Rewarded students experienced a positive change, while punished students experienced a negative change" (p. 30). Bostrom concluded that while "good speakers experience more positive changes than poor speakers . . . if our purpose is to build more positive speech attitudes, then criticism should be positive in nature" (p. 32). This finding supports a point made by Dedmon (1967) after reviewing Goldberg's 1960 study: "considerable evidence may be found which seriously questions the worth of overly negative criticisms" (p. 281). Thus, while negative criticism may be needed to correct inappropriate speech behavior, it should be presented in such a way which does not punish students. Reid (1971) recommends that oral criticism should be adapted to each speaker and should stress praiseworthy features of the speech. He prescribes that the teacher should begin with a good point first, then give possibilities for improvement and end on a note of praise. But Reid says "nothing . . . rules out the necessity of being blunt and forthright when the situation demands it" (p. 274).

Smith (1961) gives specific recommendations regarding the format of oral critiques after speeches and says "criticism should be positive, constructive, and incisive . . . [and] . . . students should be made aware that constant improvement is required and should be verbally rewarded for unexpected improvement" (p. 162). He specifically suggests that speech teachers ask directed, leading questions regarding each speech.

By guiding the students in a critical analysis of each speech, Smith (1961) believes the teacher can among other things:

> stimulate creative thinking, call attention to the speakers' special strengths and weaknesses, give specific instructions for practice leading to improvement, and motivate both speaker and class. (p. 59)

Smith's lists of questions are to serve as a guide to good questions but are not all to be used, for he reminds the teacher to only offer as much criticism as the speaker and class can assimilate.

While it is commonly recommended that criticism should be offered after each speech and that one or more students may contribute criticisms, (Holtzman, 1960; Dedmon, 1967; Reid, 1971) it should be noted that such feedback may have an effect on succeeding speakers. In a controlled laboratory study, Miller (1964) manipulated positive and negative feedback given to a confederate during his speech. The student who serves as the subject in the study observed the first speech and the feedback given to the speaker prior to delivering his own speech.

> The second speaker's utterance rate and nonfluency were not significantly influenced by the responses to his speech but were significantly affected by differences in responses to his speech and to that of his predecessor. Speakers accorded the same response as their predecessors had fewer nonfluencies and a higher utterance rate than did those accorded responses either more or less favorable than those extended to their predecessors. (p. 115)

While feedback given after a speech is not exactly the same as the feedback interjected during a speech, Miller's findings raise concern about the potential negative impact of feedback given to successive speakers on the next speakers. As he stated, a "seemingly logical analysis is that the variation in audience cues tended to heighten such motivational factors of peer competition and fear of failure . . ." (Miller, 1966, p. 114). The way in which one speaker internalizes the feedback given his peers could interfere with his speaking ability.

Darnell (1978) poses an additional question regarding the impact of external evaluations, for he argues that "the teaching-learning process is significantly affected by congruity (or incongruity) between internal and external evaluations" (p. 283). Because he says "human beings ordinarily evaluate their own behavior or performance," he concludes that "external evaluations which occur . . . are either irrelevant, congruent or 'dissonant' with the internal [self] evaluations" (Darnell, 1978, p. 283). He then goes on to consider the various possible effects of the interactions between internal and external evaluations. The point he raises about the effect of congruent and incongruent internal and external evaluations needs to be examined in the speech classroom. Such an analysis might extend Miller's (1964) research which implies that speakers internalize feedback given to others as well as to themselves and that might affect their internal (self) evaluation.

Implications for Instructional Practice

The research, as well as the "folklore", support the position that teachers need to be knowledgeable about the effects of various types of

feedback and should consciously provide appropriate criticism to student speakers. In addition, the research indicates that students can be trained to give helpful feedback to their peers and that the feedback given by students is similar to that given by teachers, especially when criteria for evaluating the speech are clearly identified.

While positive oral feedback seems to be best, written feedback can be positive or negative as long as it is atomistic and impersonal. Comments about content or delivery are perceived as helpful in accordance with the assignment. Regardless of the type of feedback given, teachers need to carefully evaluate the potential negative effect on the succeeding speakers of providing feedback after each speech.

Finally, the use of videotape playback as a method of providing feedback to a speaker has the most powerful impact on improving speaking performance when accompanied by feedback from peers or the teacher. The use of media alone is not as powerful as having an observer help to point out positive and negative qualities of the speaker while looking at the videotape.

In essence, some of the folklore about giving speech criticism seems to have been supported by research. However, much of the folklore could have serious negative ramifications and needs additional research to provide a basis for instructional practice.

Implications for Research

Additional research on the effect on the succeeding speakers of giving feedback after each speech needs to be conducted. While the results of Miller's (1964) research should cause the practitioner to exercise

caution in giving feedback after each speech, Miller's research was conducted in a contrived, laboratory situation and had the "teacher" interject comments throughout the speech. A study is needed which examines the effect of various types of immediate feedback on the attitudes toward speaking and speech performance of succeeding speakers.

More research is needed on the effects of various types of written feedback on students' improved performance, especially on students with internal and external orientations toward control of reinforcement. The interaction of students with varying characteristics and the type of feedback given on subsequent speech performance and attitudes toward speaking should be examined. Extension of Vogel's (1973) and Hammer's (1972) work is needed in the context of the speech classroom.

Darnell's (1978) arguments regarding the congruity (or incongruity) between students' self-perceptions and the feedback given them needs to be tested in the speech criticism context. In addition, incongruity among grade awarded, expected grade, type of feedback, and perception of self-as-speaker might be investigated. The effect of incongruous or congruous situations on speech performacne and attitudes toward speaking should be examined.

Finally, Nyquist and Wulff's (1982) bug-in-the-ear technique for providing simultaneous feedback should be examined in the public speaking situation. The ability of a speaker to adapt content and delivery should be studied, as well as the negative consequences of this method. The effect of the motivation of a speaker to improve specific aspects of his or her speaking ability and the effectiveness of this simultaneous feedback technique should be studied.

There is much more to learn about the impact of various types of feedback. Speech educators need to contribute to the literature, often bridging research in teaching English or other subjects, as well as research on training teachers. These implications for research are illustrative of the challenge speech educators face.

References

Atkinson, J. W. & Raynor, J. O. (1974). Motivation and achievement. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Amato, P. P. & Ostermeier, T. H. (1967). The effect of audience feedback on the beginning public speaker. The Speech Teacher. 16, 56-60.

Blubaugh, J. A. (1969). Effects of positive and negative audience feedback on selected variables of speech behavior. Speech Monographs. 36, 131-137.

Book, C. & Simmons, K. W. (1980). Dimensions and perceived helpfulness of student speech criticism. Communication Education. 29, 135-145.

Bostrom, R. N. (1963). Classroom criticism and speech attitudes. Central States Speech Journal. 14, 25-32.

Bradley, B. E. (1970). An experimental study of the effectiveness of the video-recorder in teaching a basic speech course. Speech Teacher. 19, 161-167.

Brophy, J. (1981). Teacher praise: A functional analysis, Review of Educational Research. 51, 5-32.

Clement, D. A. & Frandsen, K. D. (1976). On conceptual and empirical treatments of feedback in human communication. Communication Monographs, 43, 11-28.

Darnell, D. K. (1978). Some "basics" to get back to: A transactional perspective on teaching-learning. Communication Education. 27, 277-285.

Dedmon, D. N. (1967). Criticizing student speeches: Philosophy and principles. Central States Speech Journal. 18, 276-284.

Deihl, E. R., Myles, P. B. & Larson, C. U. (1970). The effects of teacher comment and television video tape playback on the frequency of nonfluency beginning speech students. Speech Teacher. 19, 185-189.

Fuller, F. F., Veldman, D. J., & Richek, H. G. (1966). Tape recordings, feedback and prospective teachers' self-evalution. Alberta Journal of Educational Research. 12, 301-307.

Hammer, B. (1972). Grade expectations, differential teacher comments, and student performance. Journal of Educational Psychology. 63, 454-458.

Hance, K. G. (1967). Symposium: Evaluation in the public speaking course. I. Improving the instructor as a critic. Speech Teacher. 16, 150-157.

Hirschfeld, A. G. (1968) Symposium: VI. Videotape recordings for self-analysis in the speech classroom. Speech Teacher. 17, 116-118.

Holtzman, P. D. (1960). A symposium on evaluation, criticism, and grading. I. Speech criticism and evaluation as communication. The Speech Teacher. 9, 1-7.

Kenner, F. (1967). Symposium: IV. Using the recorder in teaching speech in high school. Symposium on Recorders. 16, 217-218.

Latta, R. M. (1978). Difference score short forms of Mehrabian's scales of resultant achievement motivation. Journal of Research in Personality.

Levie, W. H. & Dickie, K. E. (1973). The analysis and application of media. In R. M. Travers (Ed.) Second handbook of research on teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co.

Locke, E. A., Cartledge N., & Koeppel J. (1968). Motivational effects of knowledge of results: A goal setting phenomenon? Psychological Bulletin. 70, 374-385.

Miller, G. R. (1964). Variations in the verbal behavior of a second speaker as a function of varying audience responses. Speech Monographs. 31, 109-119.

McCroskey, J. C. & Lashbrook W. B. (1970). The effect of various methods of employing video-taped television playback in a course in public speaking. Speech Teacher. 19, 199-205.

Mulac, A. (1974). Effects of three feedback conditions employing videotape and audiotape on acquired speech skill. Speech Monographs. 41, 205-214.

Nyquist, J. L. & Wulff, D. H. (1982). The use of simultaneous feedback to alter teaching behaviors of university instructors. Journal of Classroom Interaction. 18, 11-18.

Nystrom, C. L. & Leaf, R. (1939). The recording machine as a teaching device. Quarterly Journal of Speech. 25, 433-438.

Peck, R. F. & Tucker, J. A. (1973). Research on teacher education. In R. M. Travers (Ed.). Second handbook of research on teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co.

Porter, D. T. & King, G. W. (1972). The use of videotape equipment in improving oral interpretation performance. The Speech Teacher. 21, 99-106,

Reid, L. (1971). Teaching speech (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.

Rhodes, S. C. & Frandsen, K. D. (1975). Some effects of instruction in feedback utilization on the fluency of college students' speech. Speech Monographs. 42, 83-89.

Smith, R. G. (1961). The criticism of speeches: A dialectical approach, Speech Teacher. 10, 59-62.

Sprague, J. A. (1971). An investigation of the written critique behavior of college communication instructors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, Indiana.

Steinen, R. F. (1967). An exploratory study of the results of providing increased feedback to student teachers of mathematics. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Stewart, L. G. & White, M. A. (1976). Teacher comments, letter grades, and student performance: What do we really know. Journal of Educational Psychology. 68, 488-500.

Vladis, J. W. (1964). Variation in the verbal behavior of a speaker as a function of varied reinforcing conditions. Speech Monographs. 31, 116-119.

Vogel, R. A. (1973). An analysis of the relationship between teacher written criticism and inprovement in student speech performance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, Indiana.

Vogel, R. A. (1975). Speech criticism effectiveness: A classification and suggestions for future research. Today's Speech. 23, 39-46.

Warm, J. S., Kanfer, F. H., Kuwanda, S., & Clark, J. L. (1972). Effects of self-evaluation and experimenter controlled feedback. Journal of Experimental Psychology. 92, 123-127.

Wiseman, G. & Barker, L. (1975). A study of peer group evaluation. Southern Speech Journal. 31, 132-138.

Young, S. L. (1974). Student perceptions of helpfulness in classroom speech criticism. Speech Teacher. 23, 222-234.